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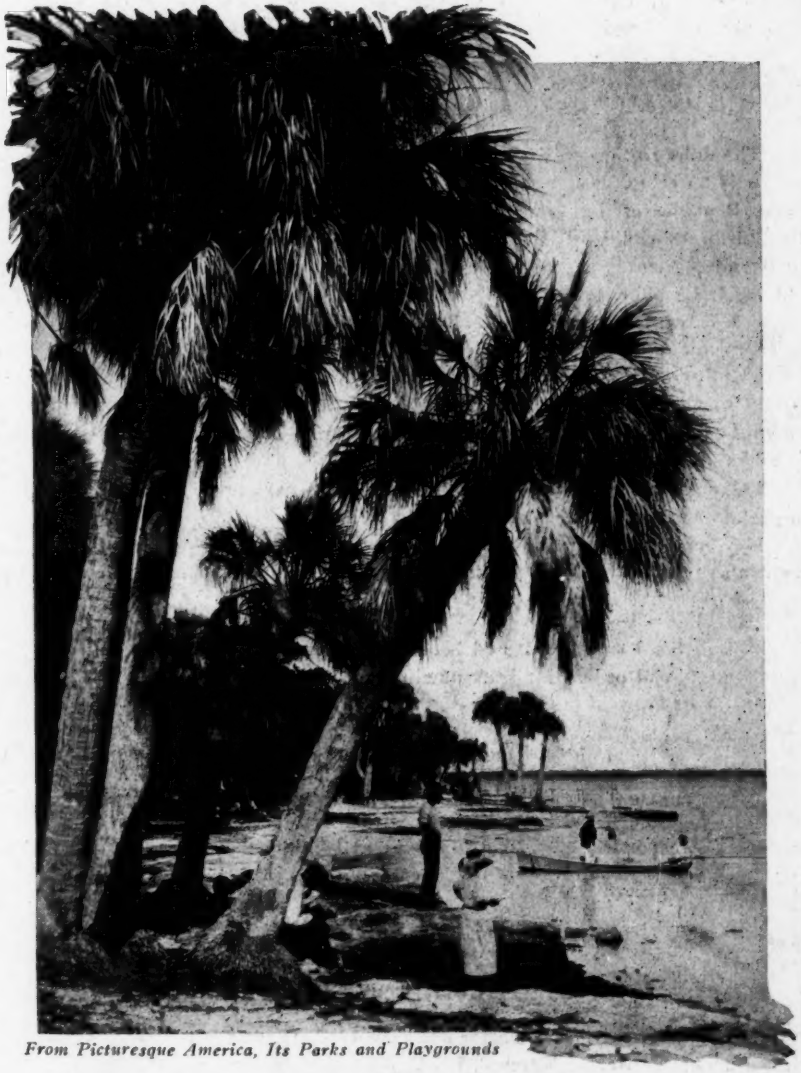

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SOME TENDENCIES IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION AND THEIR POSSIBLE EFFECT ON GEOGRAPHY*

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Two decades or more ago teachers taught *geography* to the children. Today (in all the better schools) the *children* are being taught geography. The center of attention of the teacher has been shifted from the subject taught to the *child* being taught.

THE MODERN VIEW-POINT IN EDUCATION

In a course of study for the early elementary grades two decades or more ago we would see listed number work, drawing, reading, writing, composition, and others. Today, in what is considered an advanced or progressive course of study, the instruction instead is organized around unifying centers of activity. These units of study are in many schools considered *units of experience*. School is not just the place where preparation for life is made, we are told, but it is life itself. The child in his school activities is made, or led rather, to live experiences that resemble those of real life. The best educators believe that "education is a voluntary process." The child must be directed into spontaneous, purposeful activity. He must be led so that he will have the will and desire to do, for it is only in this state of mind that he does his best thinking and develops the greatest originality. The mind must be disciplined, no matter what the system of education, to overcome the desires which lead to an inert, sensual life. In former times it was believed that this discipline should come from without and be administered by force or threat of force. Now, it is believed, discipline comes by long continued spontaneous effort on the part of the learner in solving the realistic problems set up by a skillful teacher. Within the last two or three decades our

*Part of the Presidential Address before the National Council of Geography Teachers, Madison, Wisconsin, December 28 and 29, 1925.

schools have passed from medievalism, characterized by memoriter recitation of facts, to modernism. Medievalism persists in all too many of our schools today but there are thousands in which the teaching centers in the child and the material being taught is carefully selected to fit the capacity of the child. It is motivated when presented and the children are led to participate in the learning process spontaneously, and to think. The best American schools today are developing rational minds, free from the shackles of traditional authority, bent upon knowing truth even at the sacrifice of things long held sacred. They are showing children *how* to think rather than merely *what* to think.

In no part of our entire educational system from kindergarten to university, inclusive, has there come a greater improvement in teaching methods than in the grades. In general the improvement has been greatest in the early elementary grades, to a lesser degree in the intermediate grades, still less in the high school, and there has been scarcely any improvement in the college and university. The main reason for this state of affairs is that there has grown up within our country during the last two or three decades the science of education and more attention has been given the earlier years of a boy's or girl's education. In the past decades and centuries, individuals have arisen to great prominence because of their genius as teachers and have left gems of educational philosophy but never before have there been so many men and women devoting themselves to the careful, thoughtful, painstaking study of the child, and the school, and the function of the latter in the preparation of the former for his participation in the economic, social, and political world.

ADVENT OF MODERN METHODS

Among the first attempts in the way of methods of instruction to correct the deadening influences of memoriter schools was the introduction of home geography, journey geography, and type studies. Just when these new methods were first used and by whom is difficult to determine for the exact history of teaching methods, based on extensive research, is yet to be written. A study of textbooks on methods issued during the last three or four decades shows that modern methods are less than a quarter century old. The first series of textbooks in geography to use any of

the standard modern methods were copyrighted between 1900 and 1906. All three of the methods listed above were employed.

The home geography of the elementary text of this series was by the nature of conditions the geography of the author's home. We have made little improvement in this method in our texts in the last quarter century.

The type studies used were of a particular mountain, a particular river, a typical valley, a prairie country, a cold country, a hot country, and temperate zone country. These units of study were a great advance over the previously used methods of organization of material for they offered concrete information of typical phenomena.

The one particular that set this series apart from and above others of its day and previous and made it thoroly modern was the fraternizing, thruout the two books in the series, of author and pupils. The author was thinking more of winning the interest of the child than of presenting the bold bare facts of the subject. The progress of evolution is rarely if ever uniform in every part and so in this series while great advance in method had been made along many lines there were vestiges of the old pedagogy in the use of small areal units, with endless duplication and sketchy treatment, instead of the large regional units recognized by the better teachers of today.

JOURNEY GEOGRAPHY

Journey geography introduced in this series is a recognized method used in some of the texts issued within the last few years and is a regular stock-in-hand method in the class room. Measured in modern terms of pedagogy its value is due to the close relations of learner and instructor. The child comes to feel that the imaginary journey is after all a real one. School experiences are made to synchronize with real life experiences.

VALUE AND SHORTCOMINGS OF TYPE STUDIES

The type used sparingly and sensibly in this series has lived thru two decades or more, and in some parts of our country has expanded its usefulness. Indeed its most ardent supporters worship it as a cure for all our pedagogical infirmities. It does give relief from the miscellaneous and overcrowded curriculum by offering "a simple grouping of knowledge around strategic centers of thought." These centers, such as an oil well or particular coal

mine, some particular port, canal, or city are real, specific, and concrete centers. The advocates claim that the whole field of knowledge essential to the common school in most subjects, and particularly geography, may be taught thru series of well selected types, and offer such series in geography to be covered in the 4th, 5th, 6th, and 7th grades. The type study has introduced or at least helped to introduce the "big topic" idea in American education, but it has many shortcomings and some real dangers to organized geography.

Because it deals with isolated phenomena it fails to recognize that geography is a science, a systematically organized body of facts and principles. The ties that bind these facts and principles together have their beginnings, at least, in physiography and climate. Geography must be treated in some systematic way to reveal these underlying principles. Things, as a canal, a farm, an oil well, or a port are the units of study developed, as stated previously, and not the region. The science of geography is not an assemblage of facts about a multitude of things isolated one from all others but is a study of human activities in regions. Take the regional element, the areal unit, *the earth,* out of geography, and the areal or regional basis in the organization of facts and you destroy geography as a science and have as a residue merely a science of things.

As a subordinate center of organization in a larger regional organization the type is admirable and should be retained as a standard method of geography instruction. The study of a particular granite or marble quarry, a particular cotton mill or cotton mill town, a particular water power plant in the regional study of New England, or the Northeastern States or others, adds variety to the treatment and gives concreteness and definiteness to a worthwhile phase of geography of this region. The types studied in any region therefore should be only those that are typical of that region.

There is another criticism of the type that is of as much concern to history and literature as to geography. As usually handled it fails to measure up to the requirements of good teaching in that the children are not led into that purposeful spontaneous activity that characterizes the highest type of modern teaching. It is only when the type is taught as a project or problem that it fulfills the demands of high class teaching.

PROBLEMS AND PROJECTS

The most recent developments in methods of teaching are the problem and the project. There is little definite information as to when either first began to be used or by whom. The problem is the older. The project has had its greatest development within the last eight or ten years. The numerous educational magazine articles and books on problem and project teaching issued during the last decades are all evidences that these two methods have wide approbation of teachers in many fields. They are particularly adaptable to the teaching of both geographic facts and principles. Some of the most useful and interesting articles published in the *Journal of Geography* within the last five or six years have been the class room experience of teachers and pupils with projects and problems.

TENDENCY TO BREAK DOWN THE BARRIERS BETWEEN SCIENCES

The experiences of the last few years have fixed the place of these two methods, or their combination, in American education. They have long since passed the experimental stages. They are here to stay. They are the most realistic of any of the methods yet devised because they approach the method of thinking men and women solving the real problems of life, whether intellectual, economic, or political. Their widespread use, however, has its dangers for geography as a distinct "pure" science. Take for example the development of a topic on Holland in the fourth or fifth grade. The aim is "to give the children a sympathetic interest in the Dutch and their country." Not only are the geographic facts about the country taught but the children are acquainted with the elements of Dutch history, Dutch art, the social customs and the dress of the people, and the life of the boys and girls. A typical cultural landscape is made real by the reproduction of a bit of the country on the sand table. The children write about Holland, sing Holland songs, listen to Holland music, make Holland clothes and wooden shoes; and with paper and scissors and paints make tulips, cows, windmills, and fishing boats for the Holland landscape. The teacher aims to give a complete picture of Holland and its people with little or no regard to the subjects being taught or the relative extent to which each is taught. Such a big topic is considered a geographical study because it is a geo-

graphic unit that is being considered and the facts and principles of geography predominate in the discussion.

Such a procedure may be condemned by the "fundamentalists" among geographers on the plea that geography must be kept unadulterated. Such organization is a confession, they say, that geography is not able to stand on its own feet in attracting and holding the interest and that these other subjects must be introduced to appeal to the learner. The reply of the advocate of the big topic, and of the "liberal" geographers, is that the study of Holland was developed just as any person would collect information who made a study of the country. The learning process as practiced in the school room mirrors that in practical life. Geography does not lose, they say, by the introduction of historical, sociological, or economic facts, principles, or laws in the solution of a problem that is fundamentally geographic. Not to introduce such materials in a discussion of a problem or a project that requires these facts for its solution is cheating the child out of his birthright. Modern teaching centers its attention on the child not on the subject.

The view-point of the academic specialist and the educator of today is quite different. The former stands for the purity of his subject. The other thinks more of the child. "What is geography" has been a favorite topic for discussion for many years by the academic geographer. The educators say, "We do not care what it is, as long as it contributes to the attainment of certain aims in education we will respect it, and incorporate it in our course of study or such parts as fits our needs." And this he does. Other fields of knowledge have similar difficulties with the "lay" members of their constituency. It is not the English professor who determines the grammatical use and pronunciation of words, the organization of paragraphs and sentences, and practices in punctuation. He makes rules. We learn them. Then follow the usages of the day. As for geography the educational world in general takes that phase of geography, or gives geography the slant, that it wills. Geography may remain unadulterated, pure, and it should, in the college and university, but much as we may dislike the trend, it is not and will not so remain in the elementary school. Some teachers do distinguish, and lead their pupils to distinguish, the fields of the respective subjects in problems and project teaching but most ofthe progressive teachers do not.

Teachers of big topics recognize geography as a synthetic subject or a subject with which other subjects are readily correlated. Because of its synthetic nature or its intimate relation to social science, and even to physical and biological sciences, many are making it the core of the big units. Geography is rooted in so wide a variety of interests that above all other subjects it is best suited to put the child in touch with the great economical, commercial and political world: production, consumption, conservation, commerce, transportation, and international relations.

The breaking down of the barriers between the subjects in big topic teaching is being carried to the extreme in a few experimental schools, some of which are concomitants of the nation wide attempts at curriculum revision. Not a few of the more progressive (or radical, may we say) educators are saying, "The cult of subjects is a dead one. There is but one subject and that is knowledge." All the old-line subjects must be swept away it is claimed by some, an entirely new organization of materials be instituted, the traditional subjects have no claims that should be recognized in the new curriculum. Be it said, however, that not all of the leading educators are of these radical opinions.

NATION WIDE CURRICULUM MAKING

Curriculum making in the past was an avocation, to be undertaken by the superintendent during the summer vacation, but it is becoming a vocation. National societies and foundations, university, and state committees, counties, and cities all over our country are at work. More than two hundred cities, counties, and states are reported as having new courses of study since 1920. The most far reaching attempt and the one that is more likely to leave its imprint on the public school curriculum is the work of the Department of Superintendence and instituted in 1923. Thru its committees it is quietly at work, and be it said conscientious, fair minded attempts are being made to select the best material, organization, and practices for the new course. The cooperation of all interested in education: the layman, the teacher in service, the superintendent, the specialist in the subject matter and the specialist in education is being sought. Whether the new course ("the national course," we may call it) will be a modification of the present, or a wholly new one, remains to be seen. Let us pray

that sanity prevails and that there be a clear distinction made between *mere change* and *improvement.*

SOME CLAIMS FOR GEOGRAPHY

Geography, as the writer sees it, has two claims that should give it an important place in the new curriculum, if there is to be a new one: first, its age, and second, its immense practical value.

The "cult of the subjects" may be in disrepute among some educators but these traditional subjects have "claims" that can not be ignored. Subjects that have stood the test of centuries as essential elements of the courses of study certainly must have something to contribute to the present generation, even tho we are approaching a near impassé in citizenship, as one educator fears. We are told, however, that the old traditional must go for we are in a changed world in America. Modern life is quite different from life in pioneer days when the child was almost from birth in direct contact with the environment in which he later must attempt to wrest a living and play his part as an effective citizen. The pioneer's world was a crude farming world, local economy prevailed. Economic, social, and political life was simple. School life did not need to imitate the every day life of the world for the child participated freely in his out of school activities in the affairs of his neighborhood. He attended threshings, barn raising, logging bees, town meetings, and business meetings of the church fathers. He was in close touch with practically every phase of community life. The three R's then might suffice but not now. We are living in a world of machines which multiply man's power a score or even a hundred or more fold. Production, transportation, communication are now almost entirely machine performed. The child of today even in the most favorable environment comes in contact with only a very small part of the every day world. A new type of education is, therefore needed, we are told, for "Education must at every turn parallel and accompany life in all its interests and activities." Even with this new view point and the new world we should not despair. What an opportunity for geography! There is no other subject in the curriculum that deals so intimately with man's economic activities, his method of production, his tools, his machines, the multitude of ways he utilizes the resources of his environment. Geography above all other subjects, deals with the every day modern world.

Citizenship is to be the shiboleth of admission for any subject into the new curriculum. If a subject can not contribute to the making of effective citizenship it has no right to knock at the door for admission. Our schools must develop international citizens as well as national. Again what an opportunity for geography, for it is the only subject that gives the child an acquaintance with the potentialities of his own country and a knowledge of races and peoples of the world, their national environment, their economic activities, their accomplishments or failures, their ideals, culture, and aspirations. The great danger in these days of curriculum revising is *that not all curricula makers are aware of these facts.* Therein lies our duty, our opportunity.

GEOGRAPHERS MUST COOPERATE IN CURRICULUM MAKING

We may not sympathize with the tendencies of the times but we must adjust ourselves to the changing environment for our subject. We must not place ourselves on the plane of the craftsmen in English factories who opposed the introduction of machines or of the wagon men of Pennsylvania and New York, the coming of the railroads. We must show that geography *has* something vital to contribute to modern education, and, even more than it has in the past, to the making of intelligent citizens for it too has undergone a revolution. Sailor geography, physiographer's geography, parrot-like memoriter geography have been discarded. Present day geography is practical and the methods of instruction are in strict harmony with the best the educational world recognizes today. We thus have something to offer of vital importance to the public schools.

WHAT IS SOCIAL GEOGRAPHY?*

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FIELD OF THE SOCIAL SCIENCES

According to the dictionary it is the business of the geographer to write about the earth, and the etymology of the word seems to justify that point of view. At one time, and that not so long ago, it seemed in many quarters to be the opinion, consequently, that geography had chiefly to do with the physical features of the earth's surface, with the location, classification, and causal explanation of the various forces, processes, and forms of earth phenomena. Nowadays, however, it is generally conceded, I think, that the earth includes man, and hence that geography is justified in giving some attention to him, and particularly to his various activities, including those by which he has progressed from the simple life of primitive man to the complex societies of modern civilization. It is with the study of phenomena of this sort that the various social sciences are engaged. They all deal with man, or rather with groups of men. Many factors must be considered in any account or explanation of human associations, activities, and institutions. Some of them, however, are geographic. It is with these that social geography is concerned. In other words, it deals with all the various human or social activities from the geographic standpoint, that is, from the point of view of their relations to their natural environment.

The writer recognizes that the word social, like many other terms, is not always used in the same sense by all workers even in the field of social science. The same is true, however, of many other words. For example the term capital may not connote the same idea to a geographer that it does to some business man. Moreover the accountant's idea of what capital is may not correspond with its meaning as given by an economist. Finally, the economists themselves do not all agree in their usage of the term. So we geographers need not be disturbed because the word social is sometimes given a narrow meaning, as in the expression, "economic and social history," and sometimes a broad meaning, as in

* Presented at the Madison meeting of the National Council of Geography Teachers, December 28, 1925.

the expression, the "social sciences." It is in the latter sense, that the term is used in this article.

DEFINITION OF SOCIAL GEOGRAPHY

Likewise, social geography has been variously defined. First, we have Dr. Walter Tower saying in 1910 that such terms as social geography, applied geography, and business geography do not have sufficient individuality to warrant their inclusion as separate fields. Since then, however, books like Keltie's "Applied Geography" and Huntington and Williams' "Business Geography" have attained wide popularity. Earlier still, William J. Sutherland's interesting and instructive book "The Teaching of Geography" stated that the terms human and social as applied to geography are often used synonymously, but that "social geography includes those activities and industries whose influence upon society is more direct and immediate. Under this head belong political and commercial geography." Then, in 1911, we have Professor Herbertson making social geography synonymous with political geography as dealing "with the distribution of organized human groups, whether families or states." This same year, 1911, however, Miss Semple's great book "The Influences of Geographic Environment" appeared in which we find a discussion of "political versus social geography" which makes the latter subject the more fundamental. In 1922 Professor Barrows listed, as one of his three major divisions of geography, the subject of "social geography, which would study the connections that may exist between the social life of peoples and their natural environments." As most of the life of people is social, this would seem to include most of the human activities. Finally, no longer ago than July of last year, the famous French geographer, Jean Brunhes, author of "Human Geography," summed up his classification of the subjects in the field of human geography with "The geography of civilizations, or, in its most extended and highest sense, social geography." Apparently, since the year Dr. Tower rejected the term, it has come into quite good standing. It applies to all human geography where people live or act together.

CIVILIZATION A FUNCTION OF NUMBERS

Civilization, however, is a product of numbers and of the contact of numbers. No civilization of any importance has ever been

developed or could be developed by individual, or even by limited group action, in isolation. People must come together so that mind can react on mind. Then out of the contact and conflict of ideas, the variations, as the evolutionists might say, may be sifted and the best adaptations be preserved. Man's adaptation to his environment is not only physical and mental but also social. Thus in the development of human activities and relationships the first sign that civilization is appearing is the concentration of people in certain regions. When the hundred thousand years or so of the lower Old Stone Age rolled slowly away the retreat of the glaciers during the upper Palaeolithic times ushered into Europe a new people, the Cro-Magnon race, which seems to have very largely replaced the earlier Neanderthal cave-dwellers. The physical and mental qualities of this new race are the wonder and admiration of all students of the pre-historic period, yet he was merely the noble savage still in the hunting stage of social evolution.

Agriculture and the Domestication of Animals

Not until a mingling of peoples coming from east and south into Europe do we find there the advancing culture which marks the appearance of the New Stone Age some 10,000 or 12,000 B. C. The explanation of the progress then seems to lie in the introduction of agriculture, the real basis of civilization. The social geography of this lies in man's changed method of utilizing the land and in the growth and development of social life. In the rise of Neolithic culture the individual played a very subordinate part. It was a tribal movement. Division of labor was beginning. There were centers of mining and making of flint implements, workshops of pottery, weaving, and so forth, even some manufacture of jewelry from amber and other things. That meant some interdependence between groups in different areas, as evidenced by the rise of trade routes and the bringing in of new patterns, influences and ideas. The introduction of agriculture and the increase of population fostered cooperation. The agriculturist lived in a village and had neighbors.

The typical development of this Neolithic culture arose and lasted longest somewhat aside from the great routes of trade and migration, and earlier in Asia than in Europe. Along the north side of the Caucasus Mountains and the shores of the Caspian and Black Seas in the great route of trade and migration between the

grasslands of Central Asia and Southern Russia, isolation being impossible, change went on more rapidly The grasslands were suited better for raising cattle and sheep than for agriculture. Here at least 2,000 B. C. the horse was domesticated, and very early we find there a mixed and diversified population, which made rapid progress partly owing to the influences coming up from the Mediterranean by way of the Black Sea and its rivers.

Other areas of concentration of population were formed still earlier along the banks of rivers such as the Nile, the Tigris and Euphrates, and the great rivers of India and China, which thus gradually became centers of civilization. In fact, the dawn of history begins with such concentration on alluvial river banks. Another step in historical development sees centers of population, with its accompanying cultural advance, along the shores of inland seas, such as the Mediterranean and the Baltic. Next we find great nations developing along the Atlantic Ocean, and perhaps finally, the great civilizations may concentrate about the greatest ocean the Pacific. Thus Miss Semple asserts: "The most important geographical fact in the past history of the United States has been their location on the Atlantic opposite Europe; and the most important geographical fact in lending distinctive character to their future will probably be their location on the Pacific opposite Asia." The point to be noted here is that in all history and social progress it is aggregations of people and contacts and opportunities for communication that mark the advances in civilization. These are social facts not individual. In each case, also, the influences of environment are obvious. These are geographic facts. Consequently they are matters of social geography. It is not meant by this that social geography accounts for all human progress. It merely means that in all human activities, whether in the past or in the present, social geography must be considered because it can contribute, not all but part of the explanation. Its function is the study of man, his distribution, and his activities, in their relation to the various geographic factors. All social geography, then, is human geography. On the other hand, the only cases of human geography that are not also social geography would be such, for example, as the geographic influences that acted upon Robinson Crusoe before he found his Man Friday. Having no companion, he, of course, indulged in no social activities.

SUBDIVISIONS

As to a classification of the subject then, social geography, dealing with the field of man and his activities, should be divided on this basis. First, there is man and his distribution. So we may start with ethnic geography, which, since we have racial divisions of men and also divisions on the basis of language and religion, includes racial geography, linguistic geography, and religious geography. These should treat not merely the distribution of man in each division but also show how the various geographic factors involved influence races, languages, and religious beliefs, respectively. Next, corresponding to man's leading social activities, other important divisions of social geography are economic, political, military, and historical geography.

ECONOMIC GEOGRAPHY

Of these the most fundamental and probably the most important is economic geography, since so large a part of man's activities consist in his efforts to make a living. Here social geography comes into close cooperation with one of the leading social sciences, namely, economics. The relation of economic geography to economics is very close yet the two are quite distinct. As a matter of fact they both consider largely the same subject matter but from a different point of view. Both study man's efforts to get a living, that is, his economic activities. But economic geography's purpose in this study is to show how in these efforts man is influenced by geographic factors, how he adjusts his efforts to his natural environment, and how he utilizes natural resources and forces to assist him in these economic efforts, whereas economics is concerned largely with value, with the income, individual and social, from the efforts. Thus Johnson, in his "Introduction to Economics" says: "Every one recognizes that the fundamental problem of economics is the problem of value." And Taussig, in his "Principles of Economics" declares: "The fundamental problems that arise in economics are concerned with the relation between unwelcome exertion and the remuneration which induces that exertion." Also Seligman, in his "Principles of Economics" explains: "To secure the means of satisfying wants brings into play the economic activity of man. The process may be expressed in the words—wants, efforts, and satisfactions."

To understand economic geography, therefore, it is essential to know something of economics. This includes individual and social economy both of which are concerned with getting and utilizing income. According to Carver, social economy means promoting the general social well-being. Getting the social income involves production, exchange, and distribution, and utilizing the social income is consumption. All four of these concepts involve geographic factors. Thus we have as logical subdivisions of economic geography such studies as agricultural and industrial geography, the geography of the extractive industries, like grazing, lumbering, and mining, and the geography of manufacturing, all of which deal with the production, distribution, and consumption of economic goods. Then there is also commercial geography which treats of the geographic factors in the exchange of goods chiefly, altho the other economic factors, such as production and consumption of commodities are also considered to some extent. Terms like financial geography, marketing geography, and business geography are also frequently encountered. They are variations of the foregoing divisions of economic geography.

POLITICAL AND HISTORICAL GEOGRAPHY

Of the other divisions of social geography only brief statements can here be made. Political geography is to political science what economic geography is to economics. The two former deal with the same things, that is states, governments, boundaries, political parties, affairs of state domestic and foreign, in fact all political activities, institutions, issues, and problems. It is the function of political geography to show the relation of these things to geographic factors. To do this it is, of course, necessary to know something about the political things themselves, as well as to have knowledge of the geographic factors, else it would naturally be difficult to explain their inter-relationships. Military geography received quite an impetus on account of the Great War. It includes a study of the geographic influences involved in wars—military campaigns and operations, supplies, lines of communication, and so forth. It deals with the geographic aspects of all military activities.

Historical geography is social geography as applied to history. It is the study of the reciprocal relations between a group of people and their geographic environment during a period of their

history. The social group studied may have occupied a given area thruout the historical period considered, or they may have migrated from place to place. The area included in the study may be a continent, a region—physiographic, climatic, vegetative, or economic—a nation, or a city. The important thing is that the history of the people involved is considered from the point of view of its relation to the various environmental factors. And the geographic factors involved need not be confined to the region studied. They may be on the opposite side of the globe, in fact, but they must have had some relation to the historical activities of the social group being considered.

VALUE OF SOCIAL GEOGRAPHY

In historical geography there should be knowledge both of the physical conditions, and of historical developments, before attempt is made to establish correlations between them. The same thing is true of all the other divisions of social geography. Each has to do with the geographical aspects of human activities, considered in some one of the social sciences. It is this fact which makes social geography so valuable as an introduction to the social sciences. It must give the student some knowledge of the various social activities as well as of the environment before effective correlation may be established between them. It serves a useful purpose as a bridge between the physical sciences and the social sciences. However, it is more than that; for it not only thus bears a close relationship to important social sciences, but, dealing as it does in a systematic way with human relationships to environment, it has for its own subject matter a very important aspect of social activities. Social geography, therefore, is not only an effective gateway to the social sciences, but it itself is a social science.

FRESH AIR AND SUNSHINE

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DESPAIR IN THE MIDDLE WEST

I see in his new "North America" book Dr. J. Russell Smith is startled to learn that the Middle West is producing a literature of despair. After learning about the despair, Dr. Smith gives the matter consideration and finds a geographical reason why this should be. Briefly, it is that the day of free farms from Uncle Sam has passed.

There are no more free farms it is true, but about the cause for the despair let us not be so sure. Mr. Anderson and his "Egg," Mr. Masters and his "Spoon River," Miss Zona Gale and her "Lulu Bett," and Mr. Lewis and his "Babbitt," are held responsible for the literature. These writings are murky. They feel of the sadness and repression that mark the vast and dark undercurrents of the bright, but shallow, surface stream of life. If they also indicate despair it is not a phenomenon peculiar to the Middle West. Mr. Hawthorne, it may be remembered, years ago wrote rather gloomily from New England. Russian literature is not exactly frolicsome. Dr. Bowman has a book, "The New World," in which he spares no one of the drab details (Dr. Bowman wouldn't spare any one any detail) that it takes to show that the organized political activities of men everywhere are sordid, overweening, depressingly ugly in motive. The Middle West is not by itself in having the materials for a literature of despair. Where human beings swarm enough to dominate the landscape sombreness results. If it be excepted that people do not swarm in Russia, it may be answered there is in Russia not much landscape either.

THE HAPPY ENDING IN GEOGRAPHY REPROACHED

Literary cognoscenti, because of these facts, apparently are warranted in reproaching the happy ending. "Life is real, Life is earnest." Truly presented it makes a drear picture. What then are we to make of the content of "human geography" that is so much preached and which every new geography text strives to present? By it we are shown the human race sturdily and happily striving and achieving. The peasants of Denmark dance about merrily as they cooperate to clean out the stalls of the cattle and

to make butter, the Middle Western farmer sings as he plows corn thru the hot afternoon, deep in the earth's dark depths the miners tell jokes and funny stories as they get out the coal. Those are the impressions one gets from reading a modern geography text. Evidently geography as taught is intended for the Menckenian yokelry. The human race does strive and achieve but in heavy labor and sourly for the most part. Why then direct our attention so exclusively to human geography? If we are honest with ourselves we must realize that human endeavor abounds in futilities and disappointments; the bright story related in the text about the rubber gatherers in the rain forest and the happy child laborers in the textile mills ignores much of human misery.

What then? Should we use "Les Miserables" for a geography text? That is what ought to be done if we would teach an honest human geography.

A Twist in the Definition of Geography

However, that is neither necessary nor desirable. If the Middle West is producing a literature of despair it has also produced Howell's "My Year in a Log Cabin" and "A Boy's Town," books any one interested in geography will profit by reading, "Tom Sawyer" and "Huckleberry Finn" and "A Kentucky Cardinal." These books mirror human life but they also look out of doors and picture man's activities against the background of Nature. An old definition is that geography describes the "earth as the home of man." The newer geography would have it "man making him-at home on the earth." The distinction involved sufficiently expresses the change in emphasis that is responsible for our difficulty with the dishonest human geography.

The Fresh Air and Sunshine Aspect

Frankly these paragraphs, altho it may not have been immediately apparent, are a petition for more fresh air and sunshine in geography. Of course the human interest note catches and holds attention, that is why newspapers employ sob-sisters and print columns on divorce actions, afternoon teas, and murder trials. Children are just as morbid about human actions as grown people; if Ann got her face slapped by Jeanette while on the way to school, or Harold unknowingly has a big smudge on his face the children are much intrigued.

Fundamentally, geography is concerned with the earth and the natural phenomena of that earth, the wind and the weather, the soil, the rocks, the clean hills, and the wide plains. All that may be taught concerning these things is sane and wholesome. Nature may be ruthless and stern, but she is not sordid or mean. Environment may not have the determining influence on human destinies it had in primitive times, or, as some insist, it still has, but that is no reason for ignoring it or avoiding systematic study of its content in elementary geography. Instead, there is too much inclination today toward the sociological and the historical. It is not without significance that if you give the sociologist opportunity for research his first idea is to investigate a prison or a slum and the historian fills his book with wars.

A Whole Nation Becomes Personally Acquainted with Physical and Regional Geography

One might continue indefinitely in this manner but if the reader has not by now grasped the point and either resented it or welcomed it little would be gained by going on. There is, however, one new factor that is deserving of consideration by those who are at present quite beguiled with human geography. For the first time, today, in the history of the human race has a whole nation been set free, the great and the little, the poor and the proud alike, from the binding and narrowing influences of the place of nativity. The European peasant—what does he really represent? A person bound down for a life time to the soil of his native countryside. That is the "Man with the Hoe."

In America so narrow a restriction never has been effective and today the automobile has within a generation set our whole population free. The country for hundreds of miles literally, about the home place is familiar to almost every one. Vacation wanderings take thousands partly or all the way across a continent. As never before the people, all of the people, have an opportunity to see Nature in her diverse aspects. The forms of the land begin to have meaning, it is no longer assumed that because the hills of the home farm have a certain shape all the country of the world is on a glacial moraine. "A primrose by the river's brim" no longer a simple primrose is to him. Certainly the farmer from the New York hills who drives a flivver to Florida gets an idea of latitude

and sun height he never had before. And, if something else was needed to make space shrink the radio has supplied it.

High time then that we learn more about latitude, climate, and soil in the grades, high time that physical geography be restored to its former great prestige in high schools; high time that geography departments in colleges and universities renew their affiliations with physical geography, meteorology, and geology instead of seeking new affinities with economists, sociologists, and historians.

The public is coming to know the land and the sky of itself. How much greater could be its enjoyment of the widely unfolding world if geography in the schools had provided understanding? And, at a time when air line distances and directions, as formerly taught systematically but rather futilely, are becoming significant, because of the airplane, we are asked to take note of the distance between the dwelling house and the outbuildings of a Michigan farm and to give consideration to the question whether this distance is governed by the difficulty of stable odors or the necessary room to turn a team hitched to a farm wagon.

AFRICAN TRADE

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Africa and World Trade

Africa immeasurably rich in raw products shares in export and import of world trade only to the extent of 3.3 per cent and 3.6 per cent respectively. And as its land volume is one-fifth of that of our globe, its world trade is one-sixth of the average.

In 1910, Africa's share in the shipping of the world was only 7 per cent and practically all of it was carried in foreign boats. To arrive at this figure, the total tonnage at the different harbors was taken without considering that the same vessel might call at three or four and sometimes more places for its cargo. Seven per cent for its shipping is, at least, double of the actual, and 3 per cent as its share in world shipping would be more accurate, when according to its size, it should contribute 20 per cent.

This state of affairs is due to various causes, especially (1) the backwardness of its population in the scale of civilization; (2) the want of arteries of trade and traffic, and (3) the pausity of harbors.

It is an illuminating fact that from the most civilized portion of the "Dark Continent"—the Union of South Africa—the whole export in 1923 amounted to $340,000,000 and almost half consisted of gold and diamonds. The actual figures were gold $130,000,000; diamonds $32,000,000. Nearly $2,000,000 worth of ostrich feathers were also exported. It is apparent from this, that thus far only the most valuable raw products are adequately exploited, and what holds good for South Africa is also largely true for the rest of the continent.

OLEAGINOUS PRODUCTS

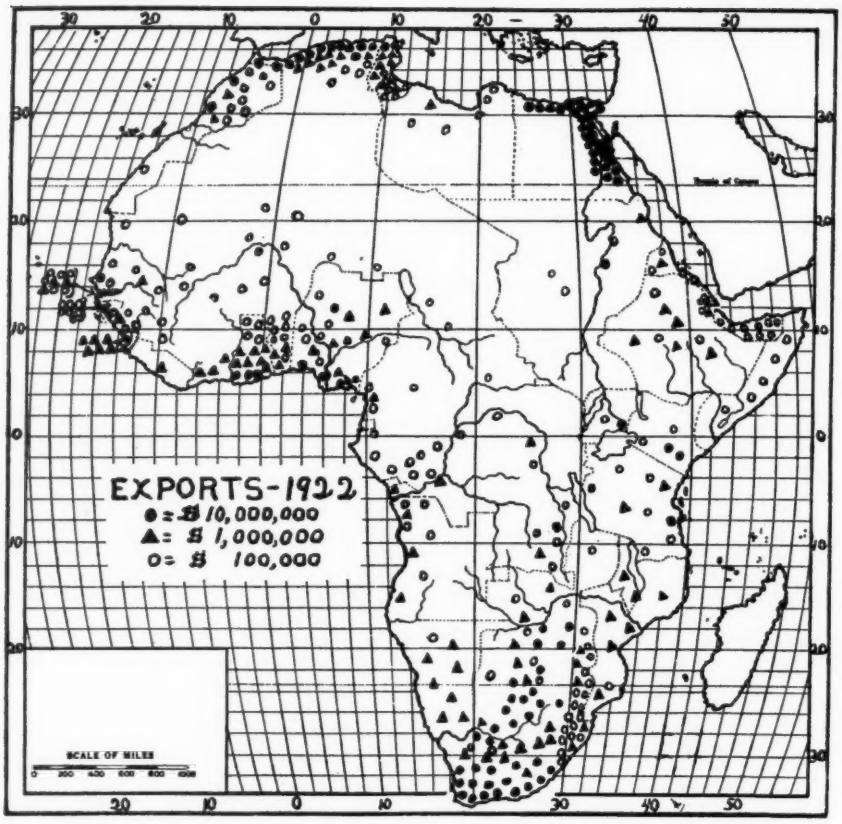
It is of considerable importance to the United States that our business men realize what a vast store house of raw products lies just across the Atlantic, not much farther from New York than San Francisco. As the industrial development of our eastern states progresses further, we will need the vegetable, mineral, and animal supplies of the "Dark Continent" to feed into the mills and factories.

Among the exports from West Africa the oil-products rank high and will do so even more in the future. The banner year for these exports was 1919. The figures in long tons were as follows:

	Long tons
British West Africa	501,354
Belgian Congo	44,845
French West Africa	381,406
French Equatorial Africa	9,149
French Cameroon	41,764
French Togo	16,638
Total	995,156

With the addition of the oil products from Portuguese and Spanish Guinea and Portuguese Angola more than one million tons of oil products were exported from West Africa in 1919. It may not be without interest to examine these figures somewhat more closely. The most important oleaginous products of West Africa are palm kernels, palm oil and ground nuts. The following amounts were exported from the British colonies in 1919.

	Long tons
Palm Kernels	278,149
Palm Oil	108,036
Ground Nuts	109,604
Total	495,789

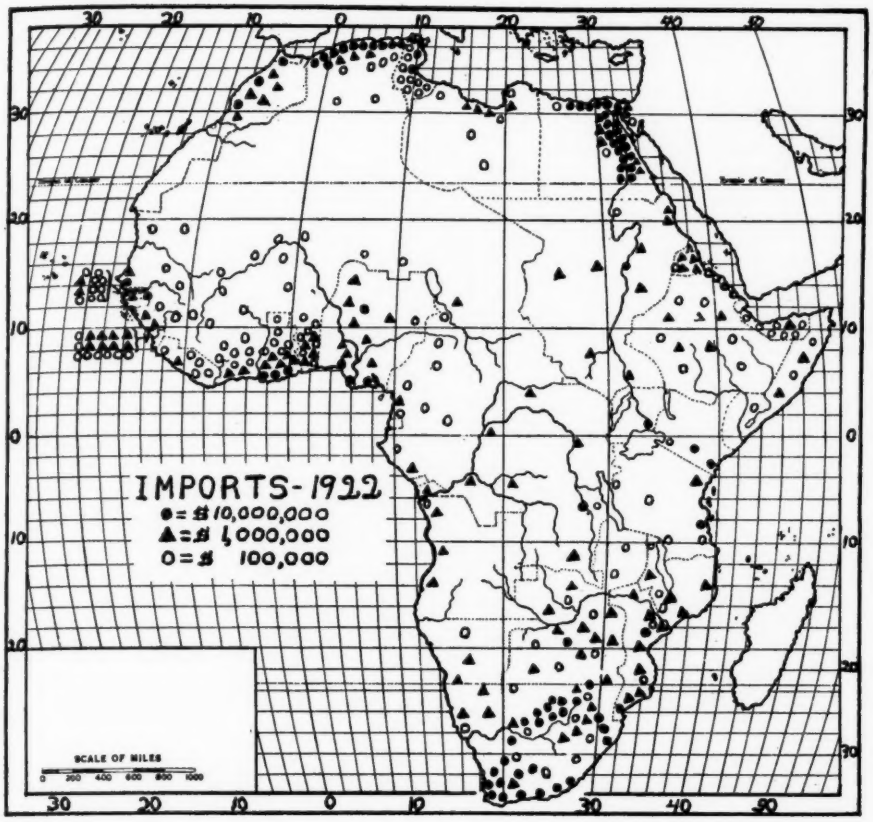


In 1914 these British colonies exported only 364,630 long tons and in 1921, due to the reaction of the war, 358,729 long tons. The slump was especially marked in palm oil. British West Africa exported in 1919, 108,036 long tons, and in 1921, 53,161, a decrease of over 50 per cent.

The French West African oil export also showed the after effects of the war. The palm kernel export went down from 100,271 long tons in 1919 to 40,533 in 1921, and the export of all oleaginous products from the French West Africa from 381,406 long tons in 1919 to 319,858 in 1921.

The only great West African colony that escaped the war slump was the Belgian Congo. The export of palm kernels increased from 6,044 long tons in 1919 to 38,854 in 1920 and the export of palm oil from 2,126 long tons in 1910 to 7,504 in 1920.

The whole export of palm kernels from West Africa during the years 1913 and 1920 was as follows.



	1913 Long tons	1920 Long tons
Belgian Congo	38,834	7,092
British West Africa	265,507	234,208
French West Africa	48,368	39,756
French Togo	10,234	1,155
French Equatorial Africa	7,551*	800
French Cameroon	22,218	19,257
Spanish Guinea	245	371
Total	392,957	302,639

*Approximate

While the export statistics of all the west African colonies for 1924 are not yet available the indications are that the figures for the banner year 1919 will, in some cases, be passed and considerably over a million tons of oil products will be thrown into the world trade by west Africa.

COTTON

For many years cotton has been looked upon as the most valuable product of Egypt. Out of the total export of £51,000,000 in 1922, that of cotton was valued at £38,000,000. In 1923 the total export from Egypt was nearly £60,000,000, while the value of the cotton export of that year was nearly £43,500,000.

The grand total of bales of cotton exported from Alexandria 1921-1922 amounted to 763,528 and in 1922-23 to 945,138 bales. This cotton, according to the report of the Department of Over Seas Trade (1924) of the British Government was exported to the following countries.

Counties	1921-22 Bales	1921-22 Cols. A & D £ (Eng.)	1922-23 Bales	1922-23 Cols. B. & E £ (Eng.)
United Kingdom	351,252	17,735,523	410,141	18,722,270
Czechoslovakia	7,194	386,769	7,108	342,688
France	81,527	4,103,489	109,006	5,052,478
Germany	36,383	1,804,371	37,039	1,701,990
Italy	38,465	1,870,400	61,201	2,822,112
Japan	19,753	908,807	33,711	1,540,050
Spain	19,399	965,098	29,157	1,334,468
Switzerland	26,018	1,303,529	31,991	1,454,582
United States	168,136	8,710,440	204,133	9,510,493
Total (including other countries)	763,528	38,503,214	945,338	43,453,641

The Egyptian government in order to bolster up the price of cotton voted, on July 31, 1923, a credit of £500,000 for the purchase of cotton. This had been done in the two previous years. Ten thousand bales were to be purchased. However, by March 31, 1924 only 4,000 bales had been bought at a total cost of £210,000 representing an average price of nearly $34 per cantar (99 pounds). From the previous year's purchase, 2,000 bales of cotton were still in the hands of the government that had cost them $35 per cantar. The highest price at which cotton was sold in Egypt was $51 on December 3, 1923, and the golden opportunity was missed by the government to get rid of the cotton in hand.

The greatest fluctuation in the price of cotton in Egypt took place during the year 1919-20. At the beginning of that year cotton sold at $80 a cantar and at the end of the year at $13. The average price of cotton, taking into consideration prices at the beginning and the end of the years, was $40 a cantar for the five years from 1917 to 1921. In 1922, it was $30.29 and in 1923, $35.99

showing that the price is slowly going back to that of the war years.

Great Britain is making great efforts to increase its supply of raw cotton and the most promising possession, as far as cotton is concerned, is the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan. In a region bordered by the Nile on the west, Abyssinia on the east, the Atbara on the north and the Sobat on the south, Britain has a soil second to none for the growth of cotton. As the native population of this part of the Sudan increases, enough cotton can be grown there to supply Britain's need. There has also been a certain amount of experimentation in the growth of cotton in the Niger territories. The export of this commodity increased from 3,500 bales in 1920 to 5,400 bales in 1921 and 10,000 bales in 1922.

COCOA

Almost half the cocoa used in the world today comes from the Gold Coast of West Africa. To show how the export of cocoa from that country has increased during the last eighteen years it is only necessary to look at the following table.

	Tons		Tons		Tons
1905	7,000	1912	39,000	1919	176,000
1906	8,000	1913	52,000	1920	125,000
1907	10,000	1914	53,000	1921	133,000
1908	13,000	1915	78,000	1922	159,000
1909	21,000	1916	73,000	1923	197,000
1910	22,000	1917	92,000		
1911	41,000	1918	67,000		

The actual figures for world trade in cocoa during 1924 were 455,130 metric tons. Of these Africa produced 256,800 metric tons, four-fifths came from the Gold Coast. To show the importance of cocoa for the Gold Coast we see that rather more than half of the total export (388,775 metric tons) from the colony was cocoa. The Governor of that colony, Sir Gordon Guggisberg, states in his last year's report that the production of cocoa in his colony may be further increased to 230,000 tons.

The Portuguese Islands in the Gulf of Guinea where an excellent cocoa grows have reecived a bad name thru forced labor employed there. As the cocoa trade in England is largely in the hands of the quakers, they have refused to handle the cocoa of the Portuguese Islands.

There is much land on which cocoa might be grown advantageously in the Cameroons, on the Ivory Coast, and in Liberia. It

is in the latter country that America might well grow the cocoa it uses if it does not wish to be at the mercy of governments and traders of other nations with regard to this commodity.

FOREST PRODUCTS

The great mahogany forests of West Africa are among the most valuable assets of that part of the "Dark Continent." In 1922, the export of mahogany from the Gold Coast, Ashanti, and Nigeria totaled 6,065,829 cubic feet. During the following year, the shipment of mahogany from the Gold Coast decreased by 1,000,000 cubic feet. Of this the government report for that year says, "In view of the necessity of preserving our forests, I cannot regard this with regret." Implying that deforestation is of no advantage to the Gold Coast. On the other hand the export of mahogany from the French Ivory Coast is still increasing, and amounts to some 50,000 tons annually. Fifty-five per cent of this mahogany goes to the United States.

Palm oil and mahogany together represent 96 per cent of the export from French West Africa. The chief sources for the mahogany, as well as for that of ebony will be the river basins of the Niger, the Calabar, the Ogowe and the Congo. When the United States has ceased deforesting it can turn to West Africa and an almost inexhaustable supply of valuable wood. Those tropical countries quickly produce a new growth and thus a permanent supply is assured.

The total figures for the export from Africa of gum Arabic, ground nuts, and shea nuts are not obtainable at this time. There is a future in the exploitation of these vegetable products. The total figures for the export of hides, ostrich feathers, and ivory can also not be compiled at the present moment as several colonies have either not kept or published these statistics, e.g., Italian colonies.

KOLA NUTS

There are, however, two commodities for which we have satisfactory figures, and these are kola nuts and rubber. The former (except diminutive quantities from Liberia and French West Africa) come almost entirely from the Gold Coast. In 1913, 7,000,000 pounds were exported from this colony, and in 1919, 16,000,000 pounds. As most of these kola nuts are carried by sea

to Nigeria, and thence distributed in the Sudan, and as the Nigerian import duty on kola was £85,000 in 1923, a certain amount of that kola nut trade has been diverted from the ocean to the overland routes, and is carried by donkey caravans to the interior. The change of these trade routes is apparent in the figure for 1923 of the coast export of kola nuts, which was only 13,570,000 pounds. The greater the distance a Sudan market is from the Gold Coast, the higher the value of the kola nut. On the shores of Lake Chad, these nuts sell for six cents each, about twenty nuts to the pound. It is the extract of kola nuts, the best non-habit forming stimulant we know of, that will sooner or later come into the world trade as civilized people learn to appreciate the exceptional qualities of this stimulant. Some of it is now being used in coca-cola in this country and in kola champagne in England. Candy with a mixture of kola extract might be made both delicious and stimulating.

RUBBER

Based on United States government figures the world production of rubber in 1924 was 414,703 long tons. Of these, Africa produced, according to the same authority, only 4,703 long tons.

The French government statistics for French West Africa for 1913, 1919 and 1920 dealing with rubber are as follows: 2,593,650 klg., 789,609 klg. 770,678 klg. These figures show that there has been a considerable decrease in the production of rubber, but an increase is expected during the present year.

The rubber export from the Belgian Congo during 1921-22 shown in the "Rapport Annuel" 1924, according to Provinces was as follows.

	1921 klg.	1922 klg.
Kasai Province	253,100	94,000
Equator Province	?	3,811,272
Eastern Province	92,000	166,000
Katanga Province	97,000	43,000

As in the case of French West Africa, the export of rubber from the Congo has decreased. The large rubber plantations built up in the Dutch and British East Indies during the rubber boom of 1910 are now supplying an ample amount of rubber for the present world's need. Indeed at the end of the World War there was a glut in the rubber market forcing the price of rubber down to such

an extent that it hardly paid to collect the rubber of the wild land or even of the plantations. Then the British Government stepped in, and, by limiting the output, forced up the price far beyond its natural level. The rubber export of Africa will now react to this.

The soil of large stretches of West Africa is suitable for rubber plantations. Men interested in rubber in the United States, hard hit by the phenomenal artificial rise of raw rubber, are laying out new plantations in Liberia. It would be advantageous for America were it to add to such rubber plantations others for the raising of cocoa, and kola nuts. Good coffee might also be grown in Liberia.

Tropical Africa a Future Source of Food

The export of Africa has shown too large a percentage of unnecessary commodities—diamonds and ostrich feathers of which it has practically a monopoly. More than half the gold of the world too has come from Africa. While food, a necessity of life, has hardly figured in its export.

We are, no doubt, justified in expecting Africa to provide a considerable percentage of the food of the world once its agriculture is adequately developed. Dr. S. S. Visher has lately drawn the attention of geographical people in the *Geographical Review* to the fact that the irregularity of the rainfall in the tropics forces us to avoid too optimistic views as to possible growth of vegetation there. The view he expresses while correct as far as Australia is concerned must be somewhat modified when we deal with Africa. Here the food supply will, of course, not be entirely dependent on rainfall, but irrigation such as has been used for ages in Egypt will have to be taken into consideration. When Dr. Visher speaks of the disastrous droughts that periodically visit Australia, China, and India he states a well known fact, but Africa in spite of its long dry season in certain parts has no such droughts. Still Dr. Visher's study is exceedingly valuable and much to be recommended.

Tropical Africa's possible two or more harvests a year to our one mean tremendously decreased costs in the production of food products and consequently in the cost of living. Whether or not we choose to take advantage of this saving now, we shall in all likelihood be compelled to do so as our population and the population of the world increases.

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CONTEMPORARY SOUTH AFRICA

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Nothing is more difficult for the geographer than to keep his information, his interpretations, and his scale of relative importances in touch with the rapid developments of the modern world. An authoritative manual is hardly off the press before some new development in Farther Mongolia, in the mountains of Borneo, or the forests of the Congo, makes the work inadequate. Few geographers have the good fortune to visit distant countries about which they write; and fewer still have the opportunity to visit countries off the main lines of tourist travel several times. A residence of five years in South Africa, ending in 1920, and correspondence with a number of South Africans since that time, has put the writer of this article into the position of being able to set forth the present, contemporary state of affairs in that country, and especially to mention those facts, interpretations, and valuations which have as yet not been embodied in manuals and textbooks written in this country. The five years' residence included repeated journeys which covered the whole territory lying between Capetown, Pretoria, and the eastern coast of the country.

COMPOSITION OF THE POPULATION

Possibly the most significant feature which has escaped American notice is the human side; the development of South African nationality. We are still prone to think of the people of the Union of South Africa as "British" and "Dutch"; as "settlers." Yet the facts of the case are that the population dates in large measure as far back as that of our own country, and that a nearly equally large proportion of it is native-born. The first settlement of white people in the country dates back to 1652; and the descendants of the Dutch and Huguenot settlers who came to the country before 1750, still comprise a majority of the white population. With 1820, a period of British immigration set in; the discoveries of diamonds in 1869, and gold in 1884 brought successive waves of migrants—adventurers who came to find a bonanza in mines—and stayed to become farmers or merchants. The last census shows that approximately seven-tenths of the white popula-

tion is South African by birth; a proportion of native-born quite often found for various states in our own country. Of the South Africans, possibly two-thirds are Dutch-speaking, but among these one often finds such family names as Holloway, Turner, and O'Neil. Among the English-speaking South Africans, conversely, such names as De Wet and Van der Merwe are found. Only in Natal province, isolated as it has been until lately from the main trends of South African development, do the people think of themselves as "British" and talk of England as "home."

DEVELOPMENT OF FEELING OF NATIONALITY

With the formation of the Union of South Africa in 1910 and the participation of the South African army as a distinct unit in the World War, there has arisen of late years the same sort of consciousness of nationality as arose in America after the Revolution. The formation of the national government was a factor of considerable significance in fomenting this growth, for the constitution makes South Africa in fact a co-ordinate kingdom with Great Britain. This may seem to be putting the matter strongly, but when it is considered that the constitution may be amended, since 1920, in certain respects, without even the formality of a consent by the British Parliament, it will be seen to be only the fact. South Africa is no longer in any political sense a "colony." It is recognized in strictly national terms in the Treaty of Versailles as holder of the mandate for Southwest Africa. The former administrations, under General Botha and General Smuts as prime ministers, were not very outspoken in their nationalism, but the present administration, headed by General Herzog, backed by a coalition of Dutch-speaking agrarians and English-speaking trades-unionists, has given definite voice to the feeling of nationality and the knowledge that South Africa is not "under British rule" but a free kingdom united to Britain by possession of the same king.

THE MORE IMPORTANT CITIES

We in America are likely to underestimate the size and importance of some of the South African cities, due to our defective information. In using statistics of population, a misleading impression is often received because of the use of the figures for white population only, and because of the separation of one com-

munity into several municipalities. Thus Capetown, with approximately 200,000 population, is thought of as markedly exceeding Durban, with approximately 160,000 in all, but only 69,000 white inhabitants; Port Elizabeth, with a total population of 50,000 is similarly overestimated in relation to Durban. Johannesburg, with 300,000 population, forms one community, economically, and is all but continuous with, Germiston (45,000) and is provided with suburbs (Krugersdorp, Benoni, Boksburg) which have another 90,000 population. Pietermaritzburg, in Natal, gives an impression of undue importance due to its having been the capital of that province when it was a colony. Its 36,000 inhabitants count for far less in the life of the country than do the slightly larger number in Kimberley, for Pietermaritzburg has not grown in size or importance in fifteen years and is today a town just not decadent.

At this point it may be worth while to remark that the origin and pronunciation of the names of some of these towns have been misunderstood in America. Johannesburg, which was founded as late as 1886 as a mining camp by the roving prospectors of all nationalities (mainly British), was named in honor of Johannes Rissik, then Surveyor-General of the Transvaal. The ending "-burg," tho originally meaning a castle, was there applied as meaning a town only. The name is not pronounced with the Dutch sound of "J," but as a straight English name. Colloquially it is nearly always given as "Joburg." Pietermaritzburg is habitually called Maritzburg, often so written, and often abbreviated as "P.M.Burg" or even "P.M.B." Its name is an interesting record of history for Dutch voortrekkers or pioneers, led by Piet Retief and Gert Maritz, settled and named it. Durban named for Sir Benjamin D'Urban, is habitually mispronounced by Americans to rime with "turban." Durbanites call it "Durb'n." Port Elizabeth is not, as might be expected, named for the English queen of that name, but in memory of one Elizabeth Donkin, who died on a voyage around the Cape and was buried where the town later arose. This town, it may be noted, is situated on Algoa Bay. If the derivation "Bahia de Lagoa" ("Lagoon Bay") for Delagoa Bay, some hundreds of miles further north along the same coast, is correct, how then account for Algoa Bay? The local tradition, that Portuguese ships touched at Algoa Bay for water "on the way to Goa" and that Delagoa Bay was the first African harbor "away from

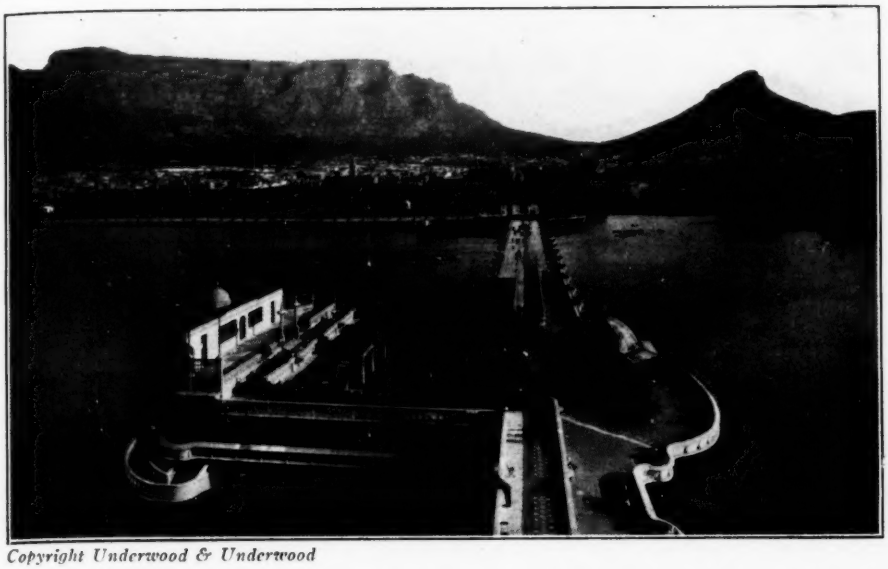

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FIG. 1. Capetown, tho still the cultural and social mother-city of South Africa, is no longer the premier port or trading center of the country.

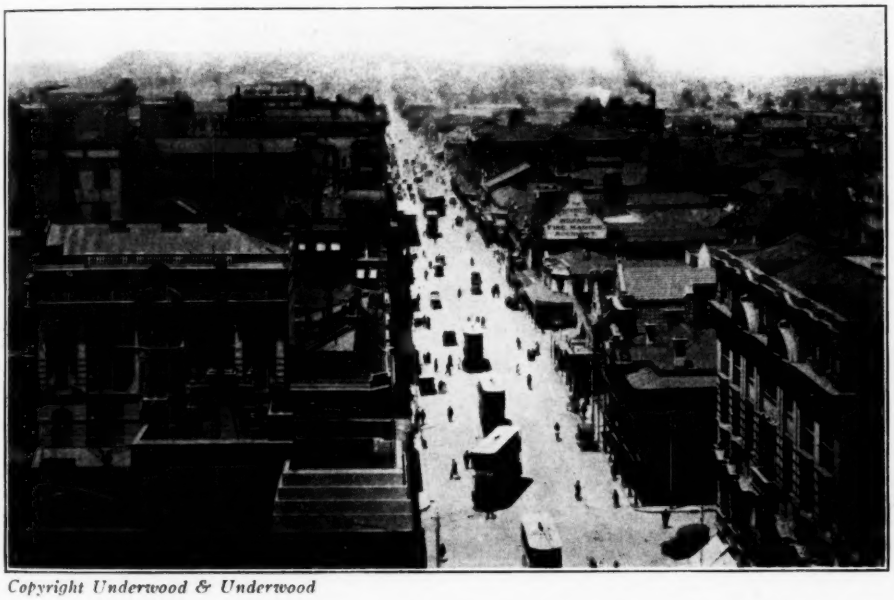

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FIG. 2. The great market-place of South Africa—in fact the only city in the country that is a commercial center such as we know in America—is Johannesburg. Here only is there the feeling produced that one is in a real city.

Goa'' is more reasonable. One province also is confused in our thinking. The Orange Free State (emphasize the word ''Free'' if you would pronounce it as do Free Staters) was called Orange River Colony for a few years early in this century. Its name comes directly from the Orange River, its southern boundary. This was in turn named by early Dutch settlers in honor of the House of Orange, whose royal and princely members had led the Dutch struggle for independence—not in memory of any district in Europe.

Capetown, tho still the cultural and social mother-city of South Africa, occupying the position that Boston did with us half a century ago, is not any longer the premier port or trading-center of the country. The World War upset this, and the new conditions persisted. Today Durban and the Portuguese port of Lourenco Marques (pronounced ''Lorenzo Marks'' in South Africa) each do approximately as large a business, in tonnage of goods handled and in number of ships, as does Capetown. Durban, indeed, has in some years been an outstanding leader in both respects. That this is true is due to the fact that the chief South African coal mines are a little over 150 miles from Durban, and that it and Lourenco Marques are both only half as far from Johannesburg as either Capetown or Port Elizabeth. The great market-place of South Africa—in fact the only city in the country that is a commercial center such as we know in America—is Johannesburg. Here only is there such wholesaling as we know in our commerce; here only are there several great retail department stores (Capetown and Durban each boast only two); here only is there the feeling produced that one is in a real city.

Let this, however, not lead the reader to expect that all the other towns are mere collections of small buildings. The illustrations in some of our school geographies give a misleading effect in this regard. They show Capetown as a place of two and three story buildings. But it has now quite a little center of high buildings—high by South African standards—nine to twelve stories. Johannesburg boasts quite a nucleus of nine- and ten-story office buildings, Durban has its ''skyscraper center,'' too. In fact, it would not be out of place to suggest that all illustrations of South African city scenes, either by showing large buildings surrounded by low mean ones, as was the case twenty years ago, or by showing the small traffic of horse-drawn and ox-drawn vehicles that

then existed, give a false impression. The omnipresent "flivver" and the motorcycle so much used in South Africa make the streets as lively and as crowded as in American cities.

RECENT GROWTH IN THE RAILROADS

Our geographers have been slow in recognizing the changes in railroad transportation in South Africa. The glamour which Rhodes' northward pioneering cast around the "Cape to Cairo" railroad plan has quite obscured the fact that this line is only of historical importance for the most part. The transportation center is Johannesburg, to which lines converge from all directions, most of them meeting in Germiston, an easterly suburb. From here into Johannesburg is the only four-tracked railroad in the whole continent of Africa. From Capetown to Johannesburg is one important line, double in that for the northern half of the journey there are two routes—via Kimberley and via Bloemfontein—both with express service. North of Kimberley, the "Cape to Cairo" route is fully served by three passenger trains and three freight trains a week in each direction. Between Johannesburg and Capetown there are three daily trains each way.

Of all the lines converging at Germiston, the one that carries the heaviest traffic and that is of most importance economically, is the "Natal Main Line" from Durban. How heavy its traffic is may be judged from the fact that it is double-tracked for two hundred miles out of Durban; that the doubling is being extended, and that it is now in process of being electrified. As a piece of engineering, it may well take rank with famous American railroads, for on it the famous "Horseshoe Curve" section of the Pennsylvania Railroad is duplicated no less than three times. Originally laid out for economy in building, the double-tracking has been done by building a new line, sometimes as far as four miles away from the old one, but the two are operated as one double-track railroad. Over this remarkable construction a heavy freight traffic and a fast passenger service are operated. At Glencoe and Newcastle, less than two hundred miles from Durban, the Natal Main Line crosses the chief coal fields of South Africa. Altho this line, like all in the country, is of 3 feet 6 inches gauge, coal gondolas of forty tons capacity in trains of thirty or more are operated over it, to Durban and to Johannesburg. It may fairly be com-

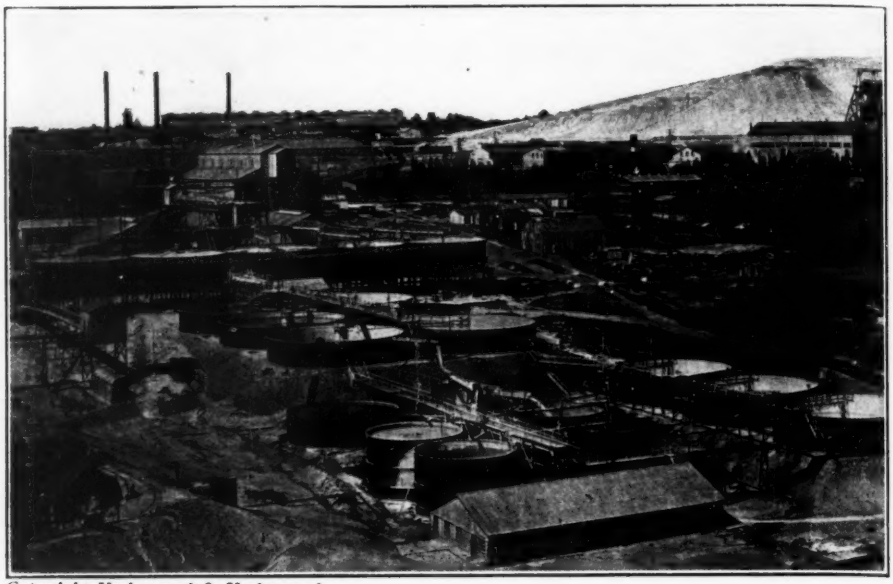

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FIG. 3. A view of some of the great gold mines at Johannesburg

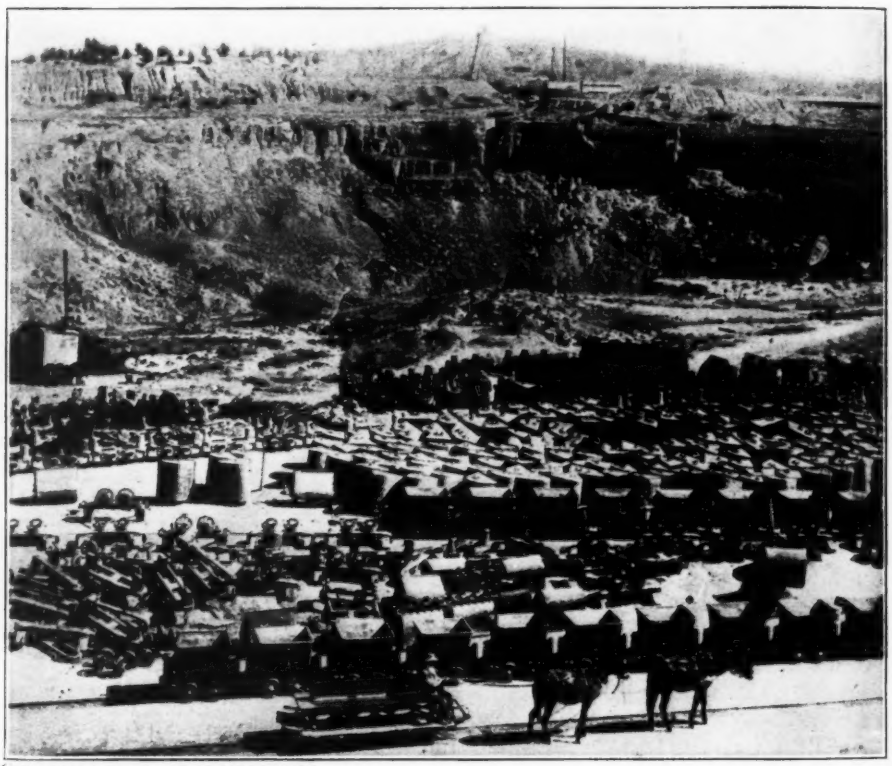

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FIG. 4. The DeBeers diamond mine of Kimberley. This pit has produced an enormous output of diamonds even with the strict control of production to maintain prices.

pared with the famous Virginian in our own country; indeed, in equipment and in bulk of traffic for so rough a country traversed, it resembles the Virginian. The recent beginning of making of iron at the new blast furnaces in Newcastle will probably increase the importance of this railway. Even now it must be regarded as the most important line in all South Africa. It is the only double-tracked line from the coast to the high central plateau.

Here it may be remarked that even if the "Cape to Cairo" project is ever completed, no thru traffic can be handled, for the Egyptian and Sudan railroads are not on the same gauge as those of South Africa. Meanwhile, the railroads from central African ports are draining the traffic away from its territory. Rhodesia, for example, is served mainly from Beira, by the Beira and Mashonaland and Rhodesia Railways, Limited.

RECENT INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT

Industrially, South Africa was forced into the path of progress by the World War when the sources of imports were largely shut off. The local industries initiated to meet this condition have been able to maintain themselves and even to increase in importance since importing again became possible. Prominent among these is the making of shoes, centered in Port Elizabeth. Cement is made in many places. At Durban and at Benoni are soap factories that supply the demand for all save the fine toilet soaps. Matches are made at Durban. The sugar-cane district along the Natal coast, with its refineries at Durban, approximately supplies the needs of the country. Cotton growing, with 200 acres in 1917, is estimated now to extend over more than 40,000 acres in the part of Natal just too cool for sugar cane. Furniture is now almost entirely of local make but from imported wood for the most part.

RANCHING AND MINING

But for all this, the country is still dominated by ranching and mining. The latter is principally of gold, diamonds, and coal.[1] Diamonds are still mined mainly at Kimberley and Pretoria, but the methods of separating them from the blue-ground[2] in which

[1] So huge are the dumps of tailings along the Reef (Witwatersrand) that they have been mistaken for the row of hills in which the Reef outcrops, by even careful observers from America.

[2] A soft igneous rock, granitoid in nature.

they are found have been greatly improved. No longer is the crushed rock sorted by hand in a corrugated-iron shed.[3] The modern vaseline process automatically seizes the diamonds and lets the rock-dust pass.

SUMMARY

As writers and teachers we should endeavor to represent South Africa as it is—not historical South Africa but contemporary South Africa. Let us speak of it, not as a colony but as a nation; let us give the cities their real relative importance and their real modern character; let us forget the Cape-to-Cairo dream for the busy actuality of the Natal Main Line; and let us choose modern illustrations. We can obtain our facts and statistics from the Statesman's Year Book and the statistical annual issued by the government of the Union of South Africa; we can get sidelights and adequate illustrations from such recent publications as the tourist booklets of Messrs. Thomas Cook and Son and the Union Castle Line. We have the opportunity of ending the misrepresentation, unintentional but real, that the coming "Second United States" has in the minds of the American people.

[3] The familiar picture of this process has unfortunately persisted in texts for twenty years and more since the method was abandoned.

PICTURESQUE AMERICA: ITS PARKS AND PLAYGROUNDS

One summer day a small group of people who were "lovers of the out-of-doors" met in Glacier National Park. They were inspired not alone by the beauty of the scenes about them, but with a desire to kindle in others a love for the beautiful works that Nature has provided for those who would only partake. There was common agreement among them that all the beauty spots and playgrounds of North America, from many of which they had received great enjoyment, should be better known among those who derive their knowledge from books alone, but in whom might be aroused an ambition to actually see those wonderlands in all their resplendent glory. This small group, therefore, resolved to carry such a message to others in so far as it could be carried by photographs and the written language. Cooperation was sought in this worthy enterprise and ultimately 400 people combined to finance "Picturesque America: Its Parks and Playgrounds," edited by J. F. Kane, and published by "Resorts and Playgrounds of America," Vanderbilt Avenue Building, 51 East 42nd Street, New York City. The *Journal* is pleased to cooperate in announcing the publication of this remarkable volume, first, because it fits into our plan of directing attention to some of the beauty spots of America, and second, because its production is a wholly noncommercial undertaking.

This volume of more than 500 pages is the most comprehensive one yet produced of the scenic beauties of North America. The fascinating prose descriptions and poems have been contributed by some eighty well known writers in the field of "outdoor" literature of the best type. The book carries one on a sight-seeing journey of enjoyment, inspiration, and education, southward along the Pacific coast, into the great Southwest, northward thru the wonderland of the Mountain and Plateau states, eastward thru the Central, Gulf, and Eastern states, across Canada from ocean to ocean, northward to Alaska, out over the Pacific to Hawaii, and back again to Mexico, Cuba, Bermudas, and Porto Rico.

The text is illustrated by hundreds of beautiful half tones and a number of superb color plates. Maps give the location and comparative area of National Parks, National Monuments, National Forests, and other reservations. It is likely to become one of the

most "thumb worn" books in our school rooms, libraries, and homes, because it will give information, joy, and inspiration to both young and old and aid in developing a desire to become personally acquainted with the wonderlands of America.

GEOGRAPHICAL PUBLICATIONS

Walter Lefferts. **Our Own United States.** 344 pages, 93 photos, 20 maps and diagrams. J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia. 1925. $1.20.

The author sets himself the twofold aim of arousing a desire to travel in the United States and of giving reality to the imaginary tour which he describes. To accomplish these ends, four children are assumed to be taken by train, steamer, automobile, and airplane on a continuous journey which touches most important cities and all states of continental United States, and their exclamations and questions on things seen are freely interspersed with the descriptive material.

Simple, definite descriptions are given of many manufacturing and agricultural processes, the localization of several industries is explained, queries as to the development of topographic forms are answered. The book is informational, is written in a lively style, has attractive paragraph and chapter headings, and should be a helpful reference for upper grammar grade children.

Truth is sacrificed to realism at times, as in the case when at Saginaw the travelers "go aboard a big steamer which loads up with bags of sugar" and journey to the Superior region, for with the exception of a very limited water traffic to Detroit and Cleveland, rail shipments only of beet sugar are made from this district. The pictures are of little geographic value, and often carry questions which have no connection with the one to which appended. The author asserts that much is lost in geographic study from the failure to link it with history, and declares that his book recognizes this natural mating. The main connection, however, which he seems to see between the two subjects is that of place association and the "mating" consists largely of the giving of historical anecdotes and allusions to individuals when visiting the place to which they pertain. Only occasionally are there pointed out ways in which the course of human affairs has borne a direct relationship to the natural environment.

Western State Normal School, LUCIA HARRISON
Kalamazoo, Michigan

Warren D. Smith. **Geology and Mineral Resources of the Philippine Islands.** Bureau of Science Publication No. 19. 559 pp., 39 plates. Breau of Printing, Manila. 1925.

A presentation of the general and the regional physiography and geology of the Archipelago, with special sections on seismology, volcanology, paleontology, mineralogy, and economic geology.

Warren D. Smith. **Physical and Economic Geography of Oregon.** The *Commonwealth Review of the University of Oregon,* Vol. VI, Nos. 2, 3, 4; Vol. VII, Nos. 1, 7. Eugene, Oregon. 1924-25.

These papers by the head of the Department of Geology of the University of Oregon were planned to furnish to the people of the State data helpful for Oregon progress.